

(Budget cont. from page 713)

ston, it has charged to it 38.9% of the loaded publication division overhead, or \$224K. Therefore, the total cost of publishing JGR is \$1764K, which leaves an excess of income over expense of \$337K or 20% of total costs.

In order to cover the costs of the Union's non-income producing projects and to build the surplus of the proposed rate over the next 5 years, it is necessary that the income from the JGR and other income-generating projects exceed the total direct and indirect costs. The target is to have all income-producing projects generate a percentage of surplus in the 10-20% range, which is what JGR and the annual meetings have been able to achieve historically. In

Journal of Geophysical Research Total of 1981 Income and Expense Budget	
Income	
Individual subscriptions	178
Institutional subscriptions	1069
Page charges	787
Reprints	87
TOTAL INCOME	2101
Direct Expense	
Salaries	180
Editorial offices	184
Printing and mailing	828
Reprints	83
Postage	91
Taxes	8
Travel	3
Direct cost allocations	44
Miscellaneous	2
Total direct expense	1379
General and Administrative Expense (c. 100.0% of direct salaries)	161
Publications Division Overhead	
Directly charged division overhead	149
General and administrative allocation	75
Total Publications Division Overhead	224
TOTAL EXPENSE	1784
NET INCOME	337

American Geophysical Union 1981 Budget for Operations Income and Expense by Category (x \$1000)

Income	
Dues	238
Individual subscriptions	320
Institutional subscriptions	2442
Page charges	1219
Reprints	142
Author allocations	15
Book sales	353
Back issues	87
Registration	228
Function fees	4
Grants and contracts	162
Miscellaneous	21
Advertising	60
Investment	56
TOTAL INCOME	5355
Expense	
Salaries	1383
Other personnel costs	81
Editor costs	303
Translation and edit	185
Printing and mailing	2088
Data processing	99
Audio visual	25
Facilities, food, and beverage	44
Services and supplies	280
Reprint expense	187
License fees/royalties	78
Telecommunications	41
Postage	45
Travel and official	108
Equipment costs	43
Depreciation	19
Rent	180
Insurance	8
Professional services	69
Grants and contributions	68
Miscellaneous expense	38
Cost allocations	(25)
TOTAL COSTS	5243
Net of Income over Expense	112

Deep-Seated Inclusions in Kimberlites and Problem of Composition of the Upper Mantle by N. V. Sobolev

Translated by D. A. Brown; English version edited by F. R. Boyd

English translation of N. V. Sobolev's review of work done on xenoliths and xenocrysts of mantle rocks brought to the surface in Siberian kimberlites. It includes 48 tables of mineral analysis—most for the first time in English.

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some cases this cannot be achieved immediately. For instance, the new journal, *Tectonics*, will almost certainly not achieve this during its first year of publication, as it will take some time for its subscription list to build up. Other projects may never reach the target because of weaker markets and resulting highly elastic demand. Nevertheless, the percentage surplus figure does give each project a target to aim at, and it does give the staff and the various AGU committees a measure of how each project is doing.

We now know what the income from any project should be. But in most cases there are different ways of achieving the same income. For instance, journals generate income from page charges, member subscriptions, and library (nonmember) subscriptions. The relative mix of income generated from these three sources is the subject of continuing debate. There is some feeling that member subscriptions should be kept relatively low and that page charges should be increased. This is because there appears to be an ever-growing number of high-quality papers submitted to our major journal (JGR), but at the same time the number of member subscriptions is declining. (The basic idea is to place the charge where the demand is high and least price-sensitive). Additional ideas are also considered in deciding how to generate the income. For instance, subscriptions should be based, in part, on the projected size of the journal. The idea is used to determine the relative member subscription rates to the different sections of JGR but has not been so widely used in determining the relative subscription rates between JGR and, for instance, GRL. It is also thought that the library subscription should be some fairly constant multiple of the member subscription.

One journal which is a consistent exception to these rules is *WRR*. This is because the Hydrology Section decided some time ago to raise the subscription rate so that the page charge collection percentage could be decreased. Thus, although the page charge for papers published in *WRR* is the same as that for JGR, the collection rate is only about 50% in the former, and well above 85% in the latter.

In other cases there is little problem about deciding where the money is to come from. For instance, the books program rarely has page charge income. The primary variable is the number to be sold at each discount rate. Thus the total expense of publishing the book (including the relevant overhead amounts and desired surplus) divided by the expected number of sales gives the average price of the book. The meetings program is also fairly simple in that the primary source of income is registration fees, which must therefore be set to cover direct and indirect expenses plus the normal surplus.

There are several things that can affect the ability of AGU to achieve its budget for any calendar year. For instance, the registration fee is based on a projected number of registrants at each meeting, which is done by the AGU staff on the basis of historical analyses of past meetings. Greater or smaller numbers of registrants will produce a larger or smaller surplus for this activity and so have an effect on the bottom line at the end of the calendar year. This effect is quite small, being only \$5K for a deviation of 100 registrants with a registration fee of \$50. A somewhat larger effect can be produced by varying journal size. Since the subscription rates for any journal are based on the projected size of the journal but the expenses are to some extent dependent on the actual size of the journal, any deviation between the projected and actual size can have a positive or negative effect on the bottom line. As an example, we suppose that JGR publishes 1000 pages more than the budgeted size during a year. This will cost about \$150K extra to produce. This is offset in part by an increase in page charge collection that could amount to \$90K, based on an 85% collection rate and a page charge of \$105/page. Rather than require editors to live within the page budgets, it has been decided that subscriptions should be based partly on the projected size of the journal and partly on deviations between projected and actual sizes over the past year or so. Thus if a journal is greatly above or below its projected size, the next year's subscription will be (respectively) larger or smaller than normal.

One of the major problems with journals is that for reasons of publicity it is necessary to fix the subscription rates of journals in the middle of the prior year, when only about 25% of the papers to be published during the year will have been submitted. Therefore, a very important job which has to be done by the AGU Publications Division, aided by input from the various editors, is to arrive at their best estimate for the size of each journal.

Finally, it should be noted that the general secretary has the responsibility for determining subscription rates and other charges such as meeting registrations. Advice is given to the general secretary by the Budget and Finance Committee, the Publications Committee, and the AGU Council. In addition to the recommendations from the AGU staff, the general secretary attends all Budget and Finance Committee meetings and visits the AGU headquarters on a regular basis. One task of the general secretary is to monitor the finances of the Union operation throughout the year in order to determine if there are any gross departures from the established budget and to consult with the Budget and Finance Committee about such departures.

If you have any queries about the budget of AGU or about any other financial matters, please write to me c/o American Geophysical Union, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008.

C. G. A. Harrison, Chairman
Budget & Finance Committee

(Kimberlites cont. from page 713)

Africa, Canada, United States, Brazil, Siberia, India), perhaps a function of the relationship between the geothermal gradient and the peridotite melting curve. Excellent reviews of the geographic and geologic settings of kimberlites are found in Meyer [1978] (for the United States) and in Dawson [1980] (worldwide occurrences).

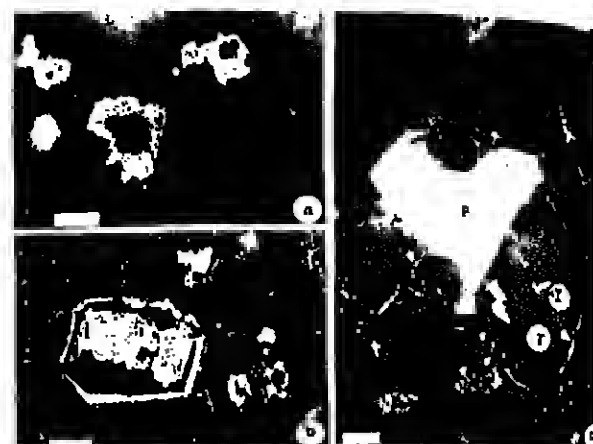


Fig. 2. Photographs taken with plane-polarized, reflected light of kimberlite inclusions. (a) Spinel grains showing compositional zoning, more Cr-rich at core and more Fe-rich and Ti-rich at edges. (b) Compositional zoning in spinel showing all textures: core spinel, 'gap' magnesian-rich rim. The gap here probably represents selective reabsorption of an earlier spinel zone. (c) De Beers kimberlite. Scale bar = 20 μm. (d) Aiolis spinel attached to perovskite (large white grain; P). Large spinel on right is zoned: chromite core, partly enclosed by crescent of ilmenite (light gray; I), totally enclosed in stannite (darker gray; T). Typical association in De Beers kimberlite. Scale bar = 10 μm.

What are kimberlites? For several years there has been a controversy over the possible relationship between kimberlites and carbonatites [see Mitchell, 1979b]. The following similarities between the two rock types had been observed or postulated: both are undersaturated rocks; both contain mineral assemblages characterized by their high content of rare earth and other trace elements; both occur with alkalic ultramafic central ring complexes (according to Mitchell [1979b] this is a misconception); kimberlites frequently contain magmatic carbonate-rich segregations. However, a closer look at the respective mineral compositions of the two rock types and their different tectonic settings—rift areas for carbonatites and stable cratons for kimberlites—shows them to be distinctive entities. As discussed in a later section, both ultimately may have been derived from the same mantle parent, but they are derived by different degrees of partial melting and at different depths.

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Cover: Configuration of the De Beers kimberlite pipe, Kimberley, South Africa. Part A: Vertical section showing the three main depth zones in kimberlite pipes. At depth the pipe is a series of 'roots' as also indicated in parts C and D. Part B: Plan section showing the largest of the best pipes shown in part D. Three major kimberlite facies are recognized in hand specimen and thin section. They probably represent two separate intrusions. Parts C and D: Plan sections showing change in pipe configuration with depth. Parts E and F are not to scale. Data courtesy of De Beers Consolidated Mines. (See article p. 713.)

What is the Origin of Kimberlites?

One of the most important and all unanswered questions concerns the mechanism of kimberlite melt generation. The major end-member hypotheses are (1) partial melting of mantle peridotite [e.g., Dawson, 1971; Wyllie, 1979a, b; Egger and Wendlandt, 1979] and (2) tectonic crystallization, or the 'residual hypothesis' [e.g., O'Hara and Yoder, 1987].

The latter hypothesis calls for the melting of a gemet (metallite) parent at about 80-100 km to produce a picritic liquid. High-pressure fractional crystallization of this melt in turn produces a variety of residual undersaturated, alkali-rich liquids, some of which are kimberlitic. The major problems of the tectonic crystallization hypothesis are that it necessitates large volumes of melt and close association of kimberlite and basaltic igneous activity [Dawson, 1971].

In the partial melt model, which is favored by many researchers [see Dawson, 1980], it is assumed that vapor-absent partial melting of a peridotite source rock occurs in the presence of high activities of H₂O and CO₂. At great depths, below about 100 km, most of the volatiles are stored in carbonate and hydroxyl phases such as dolomite and phlogopite. These phases buffer the composition of the melt through a series of devolatilization reactions. The CO₂ and H₂O released during the breakdown reactions become dissolved in the melt (vapor-absent melting). Experimental data, thermodynamic considerations, and geobarometric calculations on mantle xenoliths brought up by kimberlites suggest that kimberlite melts are generated by a small degree of partial melting of mantle peridotite in the presence of high activities of CO₂ and H₂O at depths of about 120-180 km [e.g., Egger and Wendlandt, 1979; Wyllie, 1979a, b]. Analyses of rare-earth and other trace and minor elements in kimberlites are consistent with the above model of kimberlite generation [e.g., Wedepohl and Muramatsu, 1979; Frey et al., 1977]. To account for the enrichment in such species as K, Ti, Fe, and H₂O, Boettcher et al. [1979] suggested that the mantle peridotite source rock underwent metasomatism before melting to produce alkali basaltic and kimberlitic.

Harris' [1957] zone refining model is another hypothesis that has been suggested to account for the generation of kimberlite melts, particularly for their enrichment in incompatible elements. In this model, magma rises slowly from deep in the mantle, remaining more or less in equilibrium with the surrounding wallrock. By simultaneous solution and crystallization during the magma's ascent, the incompatible elements are enriched in the liquid. It has been suggested that potassic basalts and kimberlites might arise this way. However, the partial melting hypothesis still seems the most reasonable with regard to the petrology of mantle xenoliths, to experimental data, and to known volatile equilibria.

Further important effect of volatiles in the melt is that changes in devolatilization reactions with pressure are reflected in the compositions of the liquid and coexisting vapor. As pressure decreases, the melt becomes more volatile-rich and more alkali-undersaturated (because of the polymerizing effect of CO₂). Therefore, it is possible to develop different compositions of melts from the same mantle peridotite source, at different pressures or depths. Phlogopite and carbonate together can buffer near-solidus peridotite melts between about 80 and 230 km. At lower pressures the melts are carbonatitic, and at higher pressures are kimberlitic [Wyllie, 1979a]. Wyllie [1979a] accounted for the localization and rarity of kimberlites by suggesting that the necessary CO₂-H₂O accumulations are rare in the mantle. Egger and Wendlandt [1979] advanced a tectonic explanation for the localization of end-rare kimberlites. They suggested that although melts of appropriate

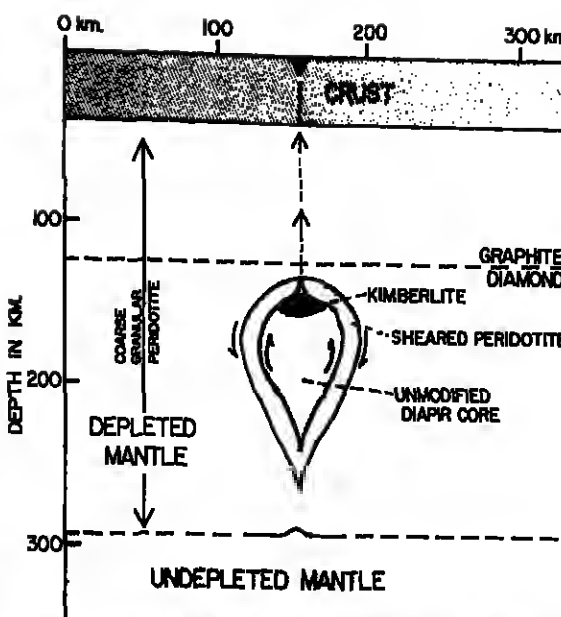


Fig. 3. Model of kimberlite melt generation during diapir upwelling; according to Green and Gueguen as emulated by Marler [1979]. If the diapir model is correct, kimberlite melt is in equilibrium with the immediately surrounding peridotite. Thus, devolatilization reactions in the depleted peridotite effect the kimberlite melt. Composition of the latter is buffered by the diapir system.

compositions may be abundant at depth, the proper tectonics for intrusion may be rare, because conditions are generally unsuitable for the rise of a diapir of mantle peridotite (Figure 3).

The abundance of end composition of the volatiles associated with kimberlite effect both the early magmatic evolution and its emplacement. There is some question concerning at what depth a separate volatile phase forms in the kimberlite melt. Wyllie [1979b] favoring the separation at great depth (80-100 km) and Egger (in a talk at the Cambridge Kimberlite Symposium II, 1979) suggesting much shallower depths. It is possible that a volatile phase does not develop until the melt is within a few kilometers of the surface, that is, not until explosive breaching occurs in the kimberlite pipe. We do have some constraints on the role of rise of kimberlites, because their included mantle xenoliths appear relatively unaltered in many cases [e.g., Boettcher et al., 1979; Mitchell et al., 1980]. The degree of fractionation shown by kimberlites, particularly in their opaque oxide phases, suggests that the melts did not rise explosively from depths of 80-100 km [Pastoris, 1980a].

Near-surface phenomena in including kimberlites also have been interpreted in more than one way. Part of the problem is that the various models may have been derived for different vertical levels within the diatreme, or explosive pipe. Clement [1979] recognized the following three depth zones in a kimberlite pipe (see cover, part A, this issue): crater (300-350 m depth, very brecciated, often with pyroclastic and partly eroded kimberlite); diatreme (extending 1-2 km beneath the crater, with steep walls, containing kimberlite tuff breccias with abundant country-rock xenoliths, showing little thermal metamorphism of the inclusion); and root zone (extending 0.5 km or more, enclosed by very irregular walls often influenced by existing fractures, containing abundant contact breccias of shattered wallrock and extensive alteration of inclusions). In most areas, the crater zone has been removed by erosion, but the brecciated, inclusion-rich diatreme zone may be exposed at the surface. However, it is in the root zone that one can best see the igneous nature of the kimberlite [e.g., detrital phenocryst to matrix relationships, euhedral crystals, zoned crystals, thermal alteration of inclusions (Figure 1)].

Thus, it is clear that kimberlites have a magmatic (or partly liquid) component. However, much solid fragmental material is involved, particularly at shallow depths in the pipe.

Clement [1979] suggested that volatile release in the melt must occur before the kimberlite breaches the surface to explain the well-developed root zone. During breaching, fluidization (rapid devolatilization, entrainment of solids and liquids) occurs near the surface and works its way back down the pipe, accounting for the extensive brecciation and low degree of thermal metamorphism associated with the upper reaches of the diatreme.

Ongoing Investigations Into Kimberlite Generation and Significance

A host of questions concerning the details of kimberlite origin and the relationship between kimberlites and their ultramafic xenoliths follows the recognition that kimberlites are mantle-derived igneous rocks and not just mantle-derived breccias. Several important points must be recognized before attempting a petrologic interpretation of a kimberlite. The silicate phases frequently have been partially or fully serpanthitized, carbonated, or otherwise altered. The usefulness of bulk-rock chemical analyses is thus limited, and the number and variety of mantle- and crust-derived xenolithic inclusions make analysis interpretations even more questionable. In addition, individual mineral phases in the kimberlite represent xenocryst, phenocryst, and matrix grains. As stated previously, kimberlites have a story to tell, but detailed petrography, as well as chemical analysis, is necessary to interpret the rocks.

Mineralogical Studies

Extensive literature has developed on opaque phases, predominantly spinels and ilmenites, in kimberlites from South Africa, Canada, and the United States [e.g., Haggerty, 1975; Mitchell, 1979a; Botor and Meyer, 1979; Pastoris, 1980a, b]. Opaque oxide phases are especially useful in kimberlite analysis because they are relatively unaffected by late-stage alteration; they are almost ubiquitous; and their compositions are sensitive to changes in chemistry, temperature, and oxygen fugacity in the magma. Zoning in and complex reaction rims around opaque oxide phases (Figure 2) have led petrologists to try to interpret kimberlite fractionation trends and the possible petrologic differences between kimberlitic varieties. For instance, Pastoris [1980b] inferred from the compositions of indigenous and xenocrystic ilmenite grains in kimberlites that kimberlites are not derived from the melt that produce abundant single-phase mantle xenoliths called megacrysts. Haggerty [1975] and Mitchell [1979a] have used the compositions of spinels in the kimberlite groundmass and in reaction rims on ilmenite megacrysts to infer tectonolite trends (including changes in f_{O_2}) in kimberlites.

Another possible indicator mineral for changing melt composition and f_{O_2} (reflected in Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+} ratios) is phlogopite, which like olivine occurs as xenocryst, phenocryst, and groundmass grains. Complex optical and chemical zoning patterns occur in kimberlitic phlogopites [e.g., Boettcher et al., 1979] and may reflect mineralogic changes no longer observable in the rock [e.g., Pastoris, 1980a]. The presence of end composition of phlogopites in these rocks also is of interest because of the role phlogopite may play in the melting of the peridotite parent rock and because of its possible role in the inferred process of mantle metasomatism [e.g., Boettcher et al., 1979].

Totally fresh olivine grains are rare in kimberlites. However, Boyd and Clement [1977] analyzed unresorbed olivines from part of the De Beers Pipe in South Africa and observed the following: (1) Texturally different grains (xenocrysts and phenocrysts) have distinctive but overlapping ranges in composition (Fe_{Mg}); and (2) the grains usually have homogeneous cores, but their rims (outer 150 μm) show Fe enrichment or Mg enrichment. Boyd and Clement [1977] interpreted the Mg enrichment as due to metasomatism rather than to growth zoning.

There are several types of intriguing intergrowths among oxide phases and between oxide and silicate phases in kimberlites (Figure 4). Some of these may indicate reactions occurring in the kimberlite melt. Several such intergrowths were discussed in May 1981 at the AGU Spring meeting. (Abstracts of the AGU talks referred to appear in *Eos*, 62 (17).) Kissling et al. examined possible reactions giving rise to rims of titanomagnetite and perovskite on ilmenite. Tollo et al. did experimental studies on the mineralogically intriguing rutile-ilmenite intergrowths, which have defied explanation for many years (Figure 4a). They believe these samples may represent breakdown of a Ti_2 -armalcolite phase, the presence of which indicates lower f_{O_2} values than previously postulated for kimberlites. Hunter and Taylor documented what appear to be products of garnet breakdown in inclusions in a kimberlite from southwestern Pennsylvania. The reaction products include a glass containing skeletal olivine and euhedral spinel grains as well as symplectic intergrowths of clinopyroxene, orthopyroxene, and spinel. Similar vermicular spinel-silicate intergrowths (Figure 4c) have been found in abundance in non-garnet-bearing mantle xenoliths and kimberlites, but their origin remains controversial [e.g., Dawson and Smith, 1975]. Schulze examined small inclusions of calcite, serpentine, and phlogopite in diopside megacrysts, and inferred that they may represent crystallization from occluded kimberlite liquid.

Indeed, assemblages from kimberlites and their included xenoliths provide a wealth of small-scale mineralogical

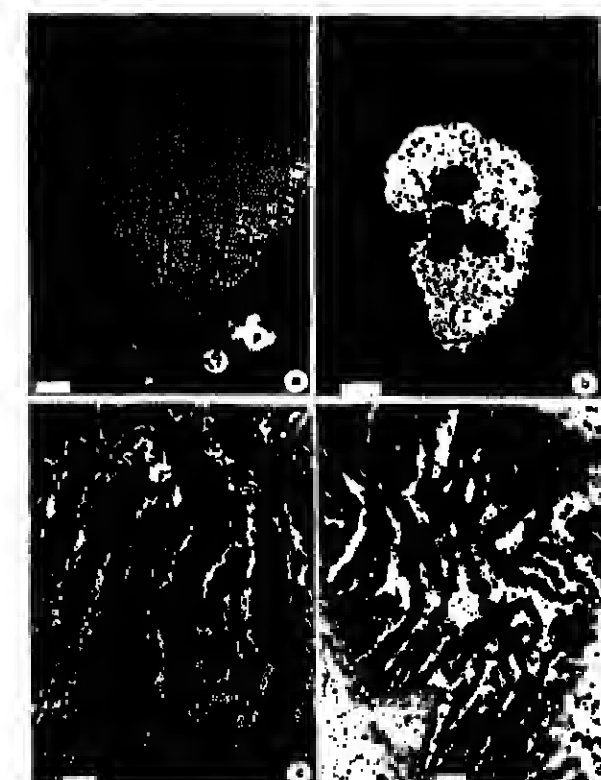


Fig. 4. Figures 3a-3c taken in plane-polarized, reflected light. (a) Rutile-ilmenite intergrowth. Major phase is light gray rutile with darker gray lamellae of ilmenite, oriented in four directions. Intergrowth rimmed by granular ilmenite, in turn mantled by granular titanomagnetite (T) and perovskite (P). Scale bar = 20 μm. (b) Large ilmenite (light gray; I) inclusion in phlogopite (dark gray). Small phlogopite inclusions (each with different optical orientation) within ilmenite. At least texturally suggestive of liquid immiscibility. Scale bar = 200 μm. (c) Spinel component of silicate-spinel symplectite. Spinel digits are zoned from chromite-rich central phase (dark gray) to magnesian-rich outer spinel (light gray). Scale bar = 20 μm. (d) Transmitted light view of symplectite of spinel (black) and altered ilmenite. Same intergrowth as in Figure 3c. Scale bar = 50 μm.

problems, many of which have much broader petrologic implications.

Volatiles in Kimberlites

More recent approaches to kimberlite genesis recognize the need to model mantle control of igneous processes. For instance, in mantle rocks oxygen fugacity approximates the quartz-fayalite-magnetite buffer (the FMQ and EMOD buffers of Eggler et al., 1980). Furthermore, in addition to CO_2 and H_2O , CH_4 now is being investigated for its effects on high-pressure melting of peridotite. Eggler and Baker found that methane not only depresses peridotite liquidus temperatures greatly, but also depolymerizes the melt and thus expands the stability field of olivine (as does water).

The recognition of other species in the postulated C-O-H fluid in the mantle is important with regard to oxygen fugacity, volatile solubility in the melt, depression of melting temperatures, melt structure, and phase relations. The presence of methane in the mantle is supported by its inclusion in diamonds and (by inference) from the formation of graphite during serpentinization of kimberlite (Pasteris, 1981). Eggler and Baker do not suggest that large quantities of methane exist throughout the mantle. However, they recognize for instance that in the presence of methane, eclogites could be produced at higher pressures than with only CO_2 and H_2O . They reason that this effect might account both for why diamonds are found in eclogites and why diamonds have methane inclusions. Furthermore, the presence of methane at mantle pressures and temperatures requires oxygen fugacity much below those of QFM (Eggler's estimate for most of the mantle), but it is possible that the mantle fO_2 is now more oxidizing than in the past, according to Eggler and Baker.

Future Investigations of Kimberlite

There is still a need for field exploration of kimberlites throughout the world to characterize better their tectonic, petrologic, and age relationships. In addition, several research groups continue to do basic petrologic and mineralogical characterization of kimberlites. Some of these groups and the geographic areas they have been investigating recently are as follows: Stephen Haggerty and coworkers (University of Massachusetts) in western Africa; Roger Mitchell (Lakehead University, Ontario) in northern Canada; Lawrence Taylor and coworkers (University of Tennessee) in Kentucky and Pennsylvania; the De Beers Geology Department (Kimberley) in South Africa; Berry Dawson (Sheffield, England), Peter Nixon (Leeds, England), and Jill Pasteris (Washington University, St. Louis) in South Africa and Missouri.

There is a need for more detailed geochemical analysis of kimberlites, but it must be in conjunction with careful petrologic interpretation. Analysis of confirmed indigenous kimberlite phases should put us well on the way toward making 'petrologic sense' out of these rocks and perhaps toward characterizing which types are diamondiferous and which are barren. Isotopic analysis of individual phases like serpentine and phlogopite provides a means of determining the fluid sources for the minerals (e.g., mantle- or ground-water-derived). Some analyses of the REE-rich phase perovskite were presented by Bactor and Boyd [1979], who showed that REE abundances differ greatly among the kimberlites. Analysis of the abundant groundmass phase perovskite may be another means of genetically classifying kimberlite types and may shed light on the nature of the postulated metasomatizing fluids that aid in kimberlite genesis.

For instance, Basu and Tatsumoto [1979] regarded kimberlites as derivatives of relatively undifferentiated deep mantle, owing to their chondritic Sm-Nd relationships. They suggested that carbonates controlled the Sm-Nd and other REE patterns in kimberlites. However, it seems likely that in many cases perovskite is a major REE carrier. One wonders how the Sm-Nd systematics of perovskite and apparently primary carbonates in kimberlite compare to those of the bulk rock. Have we previously been measuring the signal of mixed sources in kimberlites?

What about the fluids associated with kimberlites, both those that predate the kimberlite melt (reacting with the rising peridotite diapir) and those that are evolved from the kimberlite as it rises and fractionates? As indicated above, some data are forthcoming from isotopic analysis and thermodynamic modeling of C-O-H fluids. However, there may be useful information, at least on late-stage magmatic processes, locked in fluid inclusions in kimberlitic phases (especially in olivine). Roedder [1985] and Murck et al. [1978] reported abundant CO_2 -filled fluid inclusions in olivine grains in mantle xenoliths. The latter authors inferred the presence of another gas, perhaps SO_2 or H_2S , in the inclusions. Kimberlite phenocrysts of olivine also contain fluid inclusions, although most of them appear secondary (J. D. Pasteris, unpublished data, 1981). Abundant evidence of late-stage serpentinization with accompanying greenschistization and sulfidation in kimberlites (Pasteris, 1981) suggests that we should search for the presence of fluid species like H_2S and CH_4 in these secondary inclusions. In addition, recent research has revealed the presence of N_2 gas in a wide variety of rock types, including deep-seated xenoliths (J. Touré, personal communication, 1981). Especially because N_2 is an abundant constituent in diamond, nitrogen should be considered a possible component in fluid inclusions in kimberlite.

What about the broader questions on the mechanism of kimberlite genesis? For instance, does a protokimberlite melt develop in the mantle and give rise to the single-phase xenoliths called megacrysts (phenocrysts), and does this melt eventually fractionate into a kimberlite liquid (see,

e.g., Garrison and Taylor, 1980)? On the other hand, is it possible that the melt giving rise to the megacryst suite is petrologically distinct from that producing kimberlite (see, e.g., Pasteris, 1980b)? Where do kimberlites fit into the large-scale petrologic model of mantle dynamics? From where in the mantle does their high fluid content come? Anderson et al. AGU Spring Meeting recently reviewed constraints on the early geochemical and geophysical evolution of the mantle. He noted that kimberlites are strongly enriched in the highly incompatible elements compared to mid-ocean ridge basalts, but not so enriched in the less incompatible elements. Anderson questioned whether the kimberlites themselves might not be comprised of the fluid extracted from the mantle parent, leaving a depleted residue.

Why Study Kimberlites?

Kimberlites are an excellent source of mantle xenoliths and our least expensive deep-continent drilling program. Unfortunately, they do not keep the stratigraphic intact; nor do we know the exact location of the drill hole or diaph.

Furthermore, kimberlites are themselves mantle-derived melts. Whereas mantle xenoliths provide information on solid-phase equilibrium at depth, kimberlites may represent our best clues to fluid evolution in the mantle. Somewhere (in time and space) there is a petrologic-geochemical connection between kimberlites and their xenoliths (including megacrysts).

This review has emphasized mantle processes, but active research also proceeds on the deep crustal (e.g., granulite) xenoliths entrained by kimberlites. Study of the solid- and fluid-phase equilibrium of this material has brought forth interesting questions about the nature and timing of the possible degassing of the upper mantle and how this has affected the stabilization and growth of continental crust throughout time (Newton et al., 1980).

Detailed mineralogical studies of kimberlite have made us more aware of the sensitivity of individual phases such as spinel to changes in magmatic conditions. We are constantly reminded of the small scale on which equilibrium is maintained.

Even as theoretical geoscientists, we cannot ignore the fact that it is also from kimberlites that most diamonds are derived. After all, it was the lure of finding another 'Star of South Africa' back in the 1880s that led to the initial exploration for South African kimberlites and the desire for an internal source of diamonds that led to the discovery of the Siberian kimberlite fields by the Russians in the 1950s. It is singularly fortunate for us that the term 'barren' kimberlite means only that the rock has almost no diamonds, but not that it is in any way barren of geologic information.

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News

Galileo Mission To Jupiter

Jupiter has been visited four times: by Pioneer 10 and 11 in 1973 and 1974 and Voyagers 1 and 2 in 1979. Data from those missions will be expanded by the Galileo mission in 1985, which will be the first entry probe into Jupiter's atmosphere. Galileo will also include an orbiting observatory that will provide long-term detailed studies of the entire Jupiter system.

Components for the Galileo spacecraft, which consists of the orbiter and the entry probe, are nearing completion. The development model for the heat shield on the probe recently passed tests at the NASA Ames Research Center, Mountain View, Calif. NASA says that approximately 95% of the flight parts have been delivered, and the design for the two parts of the spacecraft and the mission are nearing completion.

The probe heat shield, which is made up of two pieces, will encase the Jupiter probe instruments. The front piece, a conical-shaped shield made from a carbon cloth treated in plastic resin (carbon phenolic), will be 10 cm thick at the nose and up to 125 cm in diameter. The rear piece will be composed of a slightly different material, nylon phenolic, because this lower-density material will save weight while providing adequate protection for the less severe afterbody heating environment.

When the probe plunges into Jupiter's atmosphere, it will be going 48.2 km s⁻¹, equivalent in speed to a trip from New York to Los Angeles in 1 1/2 min. This entry speed will expose the probe to nearly 7 times as much radiation as the sun produces at its surface (42 kW/cm²). Upon entry, aerodynamic braking by Jupiter's thick atmosphere will decelerate the probe with a force equal to 300 times the gravity of the earth.

During this extreme braking, the sacrificial front body shield will vaporize down to a centimeter. The vaporization of the carbon phenolic material will provide a heat-absorbing blanket to protect the instruments until, finally, a parachute will open and yank the remaining shield away. The probe then will have about an hour to make measurements of Jupiter's atmosphere.

Carbon phenolic was chosen for the outer layer because it absorbs large amounts of energy in the process of vaporizing. This material was used for heatshields on previous spaceflights, including the Pioneer Venus probe.

During the first 20 s of its entry, radiative and convective heating will bring the heat-absorbing gas layer around the probe to a searing 8,317°C. Radiative energy is produced by the hydrogen molecules of Jupiter's atmosphere breaking apart and recombining. Convective heating is caused by the friction of gases heated and compressed by the probe's supersonic shock layer as it descends through Jupiter's upper cloud layers. [Source: NASA]—PMB

Synfuels: Oil Shale Gets a Boost

The Reagan Administration has approved federal loan guarantees and support prices for two major oil shale projects in Colorado. There are more than 30 companies involved in developing oil shale deposits in the Colorado-Wyoming area, most of which have applied for support from the United States Synthetic Fuel Corporation (Synfuels Corp.).

Under the Defense Production Act the Union Oil Shale project of the Union Oil Company and the Colony Shale Oil project run jointly by the Tocco and Exxon companies will receive federal loan guarantees and price supports. Both operations are located in the Piceance Creek Basin in western Colorado.

The Union Oil Company's plant will use a surface retorting system with an upflow kiln that uses a rock pump. The system was demonstrated by Union years ago in pilot plant operation. Union's contract includes production of 10,000 barrels (bbl) per day—7000 bbl diesel and 3000 turbine—to come on line by late 1983. Within 5 years after production begins, Union plans to increase production to 50,000 bbl per day. The contract is for 10 years.

Colony Shale Oil will use a Tosco-designed surface retort with a rotary kiln that has also had pilot plant demonstration. The Colony plant is intended to produce 47,000 bbl per day by the late 1980s. Exxon will finance two thirds of the \$3 billion expected cost of construction. Federal loan guarantees will be made for Tosco's portion.

Extracting oil from oil shale is not difficult, current wisdom holds. By heating oil shale to approximately 600°C, oil has been recovered for use from oil shale in France and Scotland since the 1830s. In the late 1850s there were 55 oil shale plants in the United States. The problem of large-scale production is not in the processing of large volumes of shale, both in underground and surface retorting systems. About 15% or so (up to 60%) of the volume is usable petroleum, but in the heating process the shale expands, and its volume increases by 15–20%. The spent shale presents a disposal problem because of its volume and because of its possible contamination of ground water by leaching. Large amounts of water are needed in oil shale processing, but the supply of water has turned out not to be of serious concern, according to the Department of Energy. In a recent lecture before the Petroleum Geophysical Society (an affiliate of AGU), Stephen Zukor, then DOE and now with the U.S. Synthetic Fuel Corp., stated: "... water availability has generally been cited as a barrier to oil shale development... [but] ... the water availability assessment by the Colorado Department of Natural Resources and other studies show that there is adequate water available." Zukor pointed out that "... water policy

and management is the real issue." At this point the policy and management issues have not been addressed, and the many government agencies that are involved in any decision could produce enormous complexities. Until commercial plants are built, the policies and final standards remain uncertain.

Zukor points out that the largest barrier to starting a productive shale oil industry is the initial cost of \$2–3 billion for a commercial plant that the federal government has now supported. The economic effects to western Colorado will be immense. He sees that the problems of the processing water requirements are difficult but solvable. "Water management" means obtaining seniority of water rights from various water projects including some rights of the Bureau of Reclamation. The availability of water will be seasonal, dependent on runoff and flow of the Colorado River. Alternative supplies have been identified for dry months, but the system remains untested. Disposal of spent shale requires a technology of its own. The surface retorting waste can be handled adequately by restoring mineral pits and by grading excess into abandoned areas. The environmental management of in situ "burned out" underground retorts that could be filled with ground water may turn out to be more difficult. It is hoped that a coordinated federal policy involving the departments of Energy and Interior and the Environmental Protection Agency will evolve as oil from shale production begins during this decade.—PMB

1981 Water Year: Dry Stream

More than three fourths of the nation—stretching in a broad band from California east through the Great Plains and blanketing the southeast—experienced a dry water year, according to the U.S. Geological Survey, Department of the Interior.

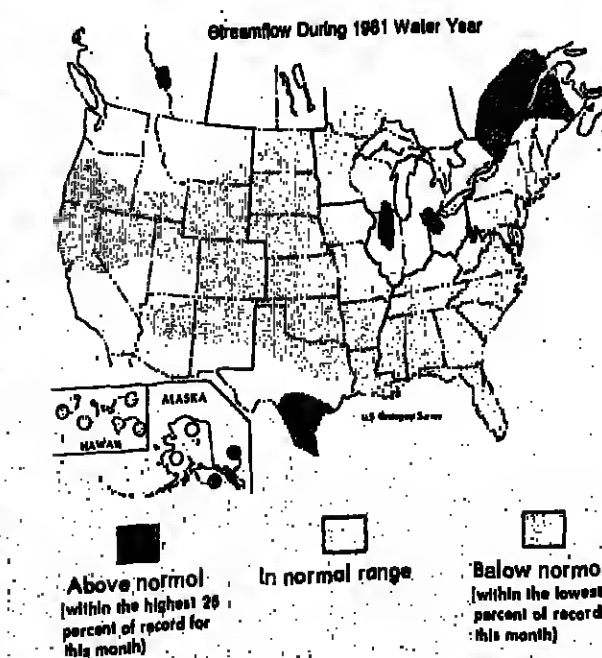
USGS hydrologists said that over the past 12 months, streamflow averaged well below normal—within the lowest 25% of record—in all or parts of 39 states. Over 60% of the key USGS index gaging stations across the country showed well below normal average streamflow for the water year.

The water year used by hydrologists runs from October 1 to September 30 of the following calendar year and is designed to follow roughly the growing season and to begin and end during a period of low streamflow.

The southeast was one of the most severely affected areas during the 1981 water year, where below normal streamflow persisted for many months over a broad area from Virginia south to Florida and west to Mississippi. USGS hydrologists said that 92% of the key index stations in the southeast reported overall water year streamflow in the well below normal range, within the lowest 25% of record.

The water year began with streamflow conditions nationwide generally in the normal range. Low-flow conditions developed last winter and began spreading to more and more sections of the country. By March 1981, midway through the water year, more than three fourths of the index stations averaged below-normal flows. The nation's streams recovered somewhat during the last half of the water year, and by September, conditions were generally in the normal range again, except in the southeast and parts of the Rocky Mountain states where low flows persist.

Reluctant the low-flow conditions that persisted in large areas of the country during the 1981 water year, combined flow of the nation's "Big Five" rivers—Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Ohio, Columbia and Missouri—averaged 682 billion gallons a day (bgd), 12% below normal and the lowest flow since the 1977 water year. The Big Five account for stream runoff in about half of the contiguous United States and provide hydrologists with a quick, useful check on the health of the nation's water resources. The following are the 1981 water year flows of the Big Five: Mississippi River near Vicksburg, Miss., 282 bgd, 24% below normal; Columbia River at The Dalles, Ore., 119 bgd, 5% below normal; St. Lawrence River near Massena, N.Y., 170 bgd, 9% above normal; Missouri River at Hermann, Mo., 44 bgd, 14% below normal; and the Ohio River at Louisville, Ky., 68 bgd, 4% below normal. (Photo credit: U.S. Geological Survey, Department of the Interior.)



Hydrology Manpower

The number of people qualified in groundwater studies "must more than double over the next 10 years" if the United States is serious about dealing with groundwater contamination, according to David W. Miller, senior vice president at Geraghty & Miller, Inc., consulting groundwater geologists and hydrologists based in Syosset, N.Y.

Between 3500 and 5000 people are involved in developing and protecting groundwater resources, he told a groundwater-protection seminar earlier this month. "That number must grow to between 10,000 and 15,000 people if federal, state and local governments, industry, and the public are serious about minimizing the types of activities that took place in the past and taking constructive steps toward protecting groundwater resources for the future," Miller said.

Soil scientists, geophysicists, geologic engineers, geochemists, and ecologists in other related fields of geology and engineering will be vital in protecting and developing groundwater resources, he added. ☐

Minority Participation in Earth Sciences

The U.S. Geological Survey recently appointed Ann Nacey as coordinator of the Minority Participation in the Earth Sciences (MPES) Program for the Central Region, which encompasses Arkansas, Colorado, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, the Dakotas, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah and Wyoming. In the past, the USGS has assisted in the establishment of earth science programs and the strengthening of existing programs at colleges and universities with substantial minority enrollment. In addition, MPES assists young students who aspire to careers in earth sciences.

AGU members in the Central Region who are interested in learning about MPES are urged to contact Nacey at the USGS, Box 25046, MS 101, Denver Federal Center, Denver, CO 80225 (telephone: 303-234-4472). ☐

Geophysical Events

This is a summary of *SEAN Bulletin*, 6(8), September 30, 1981, a publication of the Smithsonian Institution. The complete bulletin is available in the microfilm edition of *Eos*, as a microfiche supplement, or as a paper reprint. For the microfiche, order document number E81-005 of \$1.00 from AGU, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. For reprints, order *SEAN Bulletin* (give dates and volume number) through AGU Separates: \$3.50 for the first copy for those who do not have a deposit account; \$2 for those who do; additional copies are \$1.00. Order must be prepaid.

Volcanic Events

Mt. St. Helens (Washington): Minor ash emission; slow deformation.
Pavlof (Alaska): Ash clouds; lava flow; seismicity (entire report reproduced).
Shishaldin (Aleutians): Plumes accompany eruption at nearby Pavlof (excerpt of report reproduced).
Kavachi (Solomon Islands): Bubbling and discolored water.
Paluwah (Indonesia): Lava dome destroyed; pyroclastic flows (special report in past issue of *Eos*).
Collina (Mexico): New lava dome in summit crater; activity since 1976 summarized.
Guagua Pichincha (Ecuador): Small phreatic explosion; late earthquake (special report in past issue of *Eos*).
Pagan (Mariana Islands): New vent in the summit crater; other Marianas volcanoes quiet.
Langille (New Britain): Ashfalls; incandescent tephra; discontinuous tremor.
Manam (Bismarck Sea): Incandescent tephra ejected; ash emission and seismicity decline.
White Island (New Zealand): Little eruptive activity for 6 months; B-type events increase.
Sekurazima (Japan): Frequent explosions, mudrika ejection.
Etna (Sicily): Colapsa in the central crater; ash ejection (entire report reproduced).

Pavlof Volcano, Alaska Peninsula, Alaska, USA (55.42°N, 161.90°W); **Shishaldin Volcano, Unimak Island, Aleutian Islands, Alaska, USA** (54.75°N, 163.97°W). All times are local (GMT - 9 h). NOAA weather satellite images revealed an eruption plume emerging from Pavlof at 1030 on September 25. On the image returned at 1415, when weather clouds next permitted a clear view of the area, both Pavlof and Shishaldin (about 150 km to the southwest) were emitting plumes. At 1545, data from infrared imagery indicated that the temperature of the top of Pavlof's cloud was -55°C, corresponding to an altitude of about 9 km, and Shishaldin's cloud had reached 6–7.5-km altitude. The clouds drifted nearly due east and were still visible at 1945 when imagery showed a new plume originating from Pavlof (but not from Shishaldin). By 2215 the new plume had reached 9–10.5-km altitude and leading from Pavlof appeared to be continuing. By 0415 the next morning the bulk of this plume had drifted to the southeast and appeared to be largely disconnected from its source, although faint traces of plume may have extended back to Pavlof. Fisherman in Pavlof Bay reported that activity continued through the night, dropping nearly 4 cm of ash on one boat. An ash sample from one of the boats was sent to the U.S. Geological Survey (USGS) in Anchorage. No certain activity could be distinguished on the satellite image returned at 0615, but there were unconfirmed reports of a renewed eruption at Pavlof by about 0700, and by 0930 the imagery again showed plumes from both Pavlof and Shishaldin. From infrared imagery, a temperature of -28°C was determined for the top of Pavlof's plume, indicating that its altitude was approximately 7.5 km. A Reeve Aleutian Airways pilot flying near Pavlof at 1000 observed a black eruption column and estimated the altitude of its top at roughly 6–7 km. He also reported incandescent material

on the west flank. On the next satellite image with clear visibility, returned at 1415, a faint plume that extended to the east southeast was still connected to Pavlov, but no activity could be seen at Shisheldin. No eruption clouds have been observed on the imagery since then, and there have been no reports from pilots of renewed activity.

A visit to the Pavlov October 2-3 by Egil Hauksson and Lazo Skinte revealed that lava had been extruded from a vent about 100 m below the summit (elevation 2518 m) and had flowed down the north northwest flank to about the 800-m level. The lava covered an area of roughly 3 km² and was 8-7 m thick at the thickest portion of the flow front, which was not advancing. A sample of the lava was sent to the Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory. No ashfall thickness could be determined because of redistribution by very strong winds.

A Lamont-Doherty seismic monitoring station 7.5 km SE of Pavlov's summit recorded occasional periods of harmonic tremor and an increase in the size of B-type events beginning about 2 weeks before the eruption. However, a few days before the eruption began, both the number and size of events decreased; only five discrete shocks were recorded between 1500 on September 22 and 1500 on the 23rd, and only two during the next 24 hours, as compared to an average background level of 15-25 per day. On September 25, the day Pavlov's eruption was first observed on satellite imagery, the seismographs recorded a few more discrete events and intermittent, very low amplitude harmonic tremor. Between 2000 on September 25 and 0300 on September 26, tremor amplitude increased gradually, and by about 0330, tremor was saturating the instruments. The strongest tremor was recorded between 0500 and 0600, then amplitude began to decrease. However, tremor remained strong and continuous until 1220 on September 27, when it declined to several-minute bursts, between which discrete events could be observed. About 100 discrete events and lower-amplitude bursts of tremor were recorded during the 24-hour period ending at 1500 on September 28. As of October 5, B-type events and bursts of harmonic tremor were continuing.

Pavlov last erupted in November 1980, ejecting ash clouds that reached 11-km altitude, large lava fountains, and a long narrow lava flow that moved down the north flank (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 5, 11). Both the 1980 and 1981 eruptions occurred from vents high on the north flank, but it was not certain at press time whether these were the same vents. Shisheldin's last reported activity was in February 1979, when pilots saw unusually strong ash emission on the 14th, 15th, and 17th.

Information contacts: Thomas Millar and James Riehl, USGS, 1209 Oros St., Anchorage, Alaska 99501; Stephen McNutt and Egil Hauksson, Department of Geological Sciences, Columbia University and Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory, Palisades, New York, 10964; Waldo Younker, NOAA/NESS, SFSS, Box 45, Room 518-F, 701 C St., Anchorage, Alaska 99513.

Etna Volcano, Sicily, Italy (37.73°N, 15.00°E). Collapse activity deep within Bocca Nuova, one of Etna's two central craters, has been frequent since the March 17-23 fissure eruption (see *SEAN Bulletin*, 8, 3). No fissuring or other evidence of surface collapse has been observed around Bocca Nuova. Explosions associated with the collapse activity ejected fine ash, caused strong ground vibrations 300 m from the crater, and could be heard as much as 10 km away. Plumes produced by this activity could sometimes be seen on the satellite images returned once daily by the NOAA 7 polar orbiter. Images returned shortly after noon on October 3 and 4 showed narrow, well-defined plumes extending about 75 km downwind from Etna. A smaller, less dense plume, extending outward only about 20 km, was present on the October 8 image.

Information contacts: John Guest, University of London Observatory, Mill Hill Park, London NW7 2QS England; Michael Watson, NOAA/National Earth Satellite Service, Land Sciences Branch, Camp Springs, Maryland 20723.

Earthquakes

Date	Time	Mag.	Latitude	Longitude	Depth of Focus	Region
Sep 1	0930	7.7 M	14.99°S	173.17°W	shallow	Samoa
Sep 3	0536	6.8 M	43.59°N	147.08°E	48 km	Kurila Island
Sep 12	0716	6.1 M	35.67°N	73.55°E	shallow	NE Pakistan
Sep 17	0823	6.8 M	22.53°S	170.60°E	shallow	SW Pacific

A local tsunami that measured 24 cm peak to peak followed the Samoa Islands earthquake by about an hour. The shock was centered at the north end of the Tonga Trench, about 200 km west of Pago Pago. Fell across northern Hokkaido, Japan, the September 3 event caused minor damage on Shikotan Island, about 25 km northwest of the epicenter, at the southern end of the Kurile Islands. The September 12 earthquake killed 212 persons, injured about 200, and left 17 missing. Several villages were destroyed and the city of Gligit was extensively damaged. This September 17 event occurred in open ocean about 800 km southeast of the Loyalty Island region.

Information contacts: National Earthquake Information Service, U.S. Geological Survey, Stop 967, Denver Federal Center, Box 25048, Denver, Colorado 80225; Geological Survey of Pakistan, Quetta, Pakistan; Kerech Domestic Service broadcast, Kerech, Pakistan; United Press International; Moscow Domestic Service broadcast, Moscow, USSR.

Meteoritic Events

Fireballs: Brazil, Czechoslovakia (2), British Isles (3), New Mexico, Pennsylvania.

New Publications

Space Science Comes of Age: Perspectives in the History of the Space Sciences

Paul A. Hanle and Von Del Chamberlain (Eds.), Smithsonian Institution Press, Washington, D.C., xii + 194 pp., 1981, \$12.50 (paper) \$22.50 (cloth).

Reviewed by David P. Stern

On March 23-24, 1981, the National Air and Space Museum of the Smithsonian Institution in Washington hosted a symposium on the history of the space sciences, and this book is one of the results. It contains nine articles covering various aspects of the main theme, prepared by the invited speakers, plus two reprints of material, which has already appeared in similar form elsewhere. Illustrations abound, with some articles devoting about equal space to pictures and to the text, and the volume is dedicated to the memory of Tim Mulch, NASA's Associate Administrator for Space Science, who died tragically the previous year on a mountain climb in the Himalayas.

It is a rather nonuniform book, and for a good reason: There exists no consensus about what exactly constitutes history of space science, neither among the contributors to this volume nor in the community of scientists and historians. Does a chronological review of milestones, spacecraft, observations, and/or administrative decisions qualify? Some of the articles here give just that, and while such chronologies certainly do contain some necessary ingredients of history, the passive voice, so effective in dehumanizing the professional scientific literature (it was found that . . .), often takes over and makes the reader wonder what the real story was like.

At the other end of the spectrum, the collection contains personal accounts by Jastrow and Shoemaker, written in first person and quite explicit. Perhaps they come a bit closer to the mark, and though Jastrow's account of meeting Harold Urey and helping launch Apollo may arouse controversy, perhaps now other participants of that drama will also tell their side of the story and leave it to the rest of the community to match the various accounts. Shoemaker's account is a brief one, and I for one hope that the author will return to it one day and expand it. There must be much more to the story of the geologists who dreamed of walking on the moon—those who did not fulfill their dream, like Shoemaker himself, and the one who did, Harrison Schmitt, who is now a U.S. senator.

However, what may be the best part in this collection belongs to neither of these classes, but is a reprint of Van Allen's first news conference of May 1, 1958, describing the discovery of the radiation belt. It is not a personal story, the style is scientific and detached, yet it manages to capture well the atmosphere of those early days, of the initial groping and puzzlement. The question-and-answer record makes it clear that the initial explanations were at best incomplete, that they were dominated by the analogy with the polar aurora, while no hint existed yet of albedo neutron decay or ring current proton or O⁺ ions. Still, the deduction was clear and logical: This perhaps comes closest to the stuff of which 'real' history consists.

Two lucid reviews were contributed by professional science historians. Steve Bruhns surveys theories of the origin of the solar system, 1900-1980, a thorough exposition, which covers its subject well, though an afterword linking it to present-day views might have been appropriate. And Stewart Gillmor reviews the story of ionospheric layers up to about 1960, when the study of the earth's ionosphere entered a new phase with different emphases (e.g., thermospheric chemistry), new tools, and perhaps a new cast of characters.

Other articles are by Lyman Spitzer, Jr., on UV astronomy; by Leo Goldberg on solar observations from space; by Herbert Friedman on early 'rocket astronomy'; in particular X rays (striking pictures); by Richard Hallion on launch vehicles; by Pamela Mack on the Landsat project; and a review of space science by Homer Newell, adapted from part of his recent book *Beyond the Atmosphere: Early Years of Space Science*.

Taken together, it is a first step, or perhaps a collection of steps in different directions, trying to define and capture the image of a new scientific discipline that is still evolving. It is very much like a set of test drillings by a prospector, to determine whether the lode is there and whether it is worth extracting. On this point, at least, the answer seems clear: The lode exists, and it is an immensely rich one. It will reward handsomely those who will extract it, but the effort will have to go far beyond this modest beginning.

David P. Stern is with the Laboratory for Extraterrestrial Physics, Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, Maryland.

Environmental Geology

D. R. Coates, John Wiley, New York, iv + 701 pp., 1981, \$21.95.

Reviewed by Robert H. Fakundnyh

The subject area of 'environmental geology' has needed a precise definition and a cogent argument to give it legitimacy among the other subdivisions of earth science. Donald R. Coates has aided the cause of legitimacy by providing this comprehensive and reasonably priced compilation of data, case histories, and philosophy. We still wait for a succinct definition, however.

The book has neither a stated specific audience nor a declared purpose, but seems to be a handbook, almanac,

and history of environmental geology for the professional geologist and lay person that could also be used as an undergraduate-level college text. Although it may not succeed fully in either function, it does provide the reader with an overview of the impact geology has upon our lives. Present philosophical elements and personal emphases in the presentation of arguments pertaining to current environmental issues will probably make it one of the more provocative scientific books available.

The book contains over 700 pages of discussions with nearly 700 black and white illustrations and tables. It is divided into six parts: 'Fundamentals,' 'Geologic Resources and Energy,' 'Geologic Hazards,' the 'Human Modification of Nature,' 'Environmental Management,' and 'Synthesis and Epilogue,' accompanied by a glossary and six appendices giving the classification of rocks, the origin of mineral deposits, and a list of recent hazards and disaster events. Each of the six parts has an introduction with readings presented as several chapters, and each of the chapters (21 in all) has an individual introduction and readings list as well as a conclusion, called 'Perspectives.' Such a massive undertaking would normally take years to write. The subject matter, however, requires timeliness, and a large number of laws suggest that this work was done quickly.

The long list of positive characteristics attests to Coates' talent for compilation, assimilation, and synthesis. The chapters on 'Historical Perspectives,' 'Energy and Fossil Fuels,' 'Energy: Alternative Sources,' 'Volcanic Activity,' 'Landslides,' 'Floods,' 'Engineering Impacts on Water Supply,' 'Coastal Environments,' 'Human Impacts on Soil,' 'Weather, Climate, and Civilization' are comprehensive and enlightening. Technical quality is particularly high in some of Coates' own fields of expertise: geomorphology, surficial geology and soils, and case-history reviews. The numerous interspersed tables are pertinent and effective as supplementary data for the case histories. The scope of the book is ambitious, yet Coates is successful in mentioning almost every topic related to environmental geology. One way in which the usefulness of the text could be enhanced would be to add a comprehensive reference section that leads the reader to a primary source for the myriad case histories and interesting facts.

This book would be a worthwhile addition to every geologist's and environmentalist's library because it contains not only hundreds of short discussions of appropriate case histories related to each of the main topics, but also graphs and tables of data that effectively illustrate how geologic information is needed for many of today's decisions. Excellent accounts of geology's role in human history illustrate the delicate relationship between impact of people upon their surroundings and the perils of nature. Nowhere else have I seen in one volume so many tables of data useful for developing perspectives on environmental questions.

Several deficiencies are apparent in both the editing and printing and the text content. As examples, reproduction quality of photographs is poor, and type style and layout are inconsistent in later chapters. Also, many figures captions are incomplete or not explanatory, numerous typographical errors exist between text tables and appendix tables, the table of contents is too abbreviated, and the glossary and index are incomplete. Several topics could have been discussed more fully, including governmental decision making, remote sensing of the environment, strategic minerals, geophysical techniques used for mineral-resources exploration and regional structural studies, state and Federal powerplant-siting laws, and the effects of trace element chemistry upon health. Some minor problems annoy more than offend; for example, several of the maps contain errors or fail to illustrate the intended idea, the definition of 'geotechnology' is inappropriate, the discussion of plate tectonics is weak, some facts are in error (asbestos is not a trace element, granite is not the most common intrusive rock, several cities larger than Denver are not on a major

water body), and inaccuracies exist in both the presentation of the history of geologic studies pertaining to the hearings on the siting of Indian Point, New York, nuclear powerplant and the closing of the West Valley nuclear-fuel reprocessing plant in western New York.

A significant problem with the text content is the unbalanced emphasis given to contrasting environmental philosophies. One example is the discussion of mining impact, where a reprinted advertisement, including photographs, by a tractor corporation informs us early in the book, in the chapter on 'Mineral Resources,' that 'mining makes a mess of the countryside.' This visual presentation, followed by a section that discusses environmental problems of mining and another on extraction processes, suggests that mining is horrendous. The impression is not countered or contrasted until the end of the book, in a small subchapter on mine reclamation. Coates devotes 10 basic concepts, some of which either seem unnecessary for discussion, such as 'environmental problems are universal,' or are open to debate, such as 'environmental decisions invariably involve and produce internal conflicts.' Several other concepts are used in questionable fashion, including Newton's second law of motion and the notion of feedback in systems. An interesting, and perhaps the most controversial, aspect of the book is Coates' boldness in debating environmental issues and presenting his personal views on managing the environment.

Coates, however, is convincing in this immense composition that environmental geology is a legitimate subject area of earth science. To provide the needed definition, perhaps we can draw from Coates' own words, in his tenth basic concept, where he illustrates what environmental geologists should do: 'Environmental geologists . . . should . . . articulate their findings and be willing to share their judgments in the public forum.' Coates has followed his own advice. Although the quality of the text is uneven, the book's good points so greatly outweigh the deficiencies that it will be valuable to all readers concerned with the environment and to all geologists interested in the influence their knowledge can have on the decisions made in both private and public sectors.

Robert H. Fakundnyh is with the New York State Geological Survey, Albany, New York.

Who Pays for Clean Water? The Distribution of Water Pollution Control Costs

E. E. Lake, W. M. Hannemann, and S. M. Oester, Westview, Boulder, Colo., xiii + 244 pp., 1979, \$20.00.

Reviewed by John E. Scheller

This is a report on a study of the costs of compliance with the 1972 amendments to the Water Pollution Control Act (P.L. 92-500) and of the distribution of these costs among different segments of society. Lake, Hannemann, and Oester set out to answer three questions (p. 1): 'Who will pay for water pollution control? How great will be the burden for different socioeconomic groups? Will the distribution of costs be equitable?'

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Faculty Positions Environmental Engineering. Beginning January or September 1982. The position requires undergraduate and graduate teaching and sponsored research activities in the areas of water quality control and water resources. An earned doctorate is required and at least a degree in civil engineering is preferred. Rank will be at the assistant professor level and salary will depend upon qualifications. Apply to: Dr. Lester A. Rose, Chairman, Department of Civil Engineering, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia 22901.

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The book is organized into five chapters. It begins with a review of the provisions of P.L. 92-500 and a brief history of water pollution control in the United States.

A discussion of problems of defining and measuring the equity of the distribution of water pollution control costs is provided in chapter 2, along with some information on the distribution of income in the United States. The authors propose to judge the equity of the distribution of the costs of the Act by estimating the extent to which the Act changes the equality of the distribution of income and by comparing the distribution of the costs with the 'distribution' of the personal income tax, the total (Federal, state, and local) tax burden, the property tax, and the user charge burden' (p. 18). However, the distribution of the costs is compared only with that of the Federal personal income tax and the total Federal tax burden; the other comparisons are not presented.

In the third chapter the authors provide estimates of the municipal costs of complying with the Act and discuss both the methods that may be used to finance these costs and the resulting incidence of the costs. The distribution of the municipal costs of the Act is estimated based on assumptions as to methods of finance, which are, in part, based on survey results.

In chapter 4 the costs of industrial compliance with the Act are estimated under the assumption that the only pollution control alternatives available to industries consist of self-treatment or treatment in publicly owned facilities; the possibility that some industries might find changes in their production processes to be the most efficient means of compliance is not considered. The authors then provide estimates of the price increases resulting from the estimated industrial water pollution control expenditures. These price increases result in real income losses to consumers in that they can purchase fewer goods and services, given a fixed income. The magnitude of these annual real income, or welfare, losses is estimated for families in each income category on the basis of expenditure patterns within each category and price elasticities of demand.

In chapter 5, the estimates of the distribution of the costs of municipal compliance are combined with the estimates of the distribution of the welfare losses attributable to industrial price increases to obtain the estimated distribution of the total costs of compliance with P.L. 92-500. Estimates are provided by income, age, and racial groups (blacks versus the U.S. population as a whole) for 1977, 1980, and 1985. As it is assumed that full compliance will not be achieved until 1983, the estimates of the annual costs for 1985 are the only ones based on an assumption of full compliance.

In estimating the costs of full compliance, it is assumed that the requirements of the Act will be satisfied through private sector investments in both Best Practicable Technology (BPT) and Best Available Technology (BAT) and public sector investments in the amounts described in the 1974 Needs Survey Categories I, II, and IV-B' (p. 229).

Needs Survey Categories I, II, and IV-B include traditional water-quality programs for treatment plants and interceptor sewers. Also provided are estimates of the distribution of costs for a more comprehensive program encompassing categories I-V of the Needs Survey, which would require further upgrading of existing sewers and construction of new sewage and rainwater collection facilities. The authors do not consider the costs of Needs Category VI, which is

concerned with expenditures for the treatment and/or control of stormwater runoff.

Two sets of estimates of municipal expenditures are derived: one set under the assumption that there would have been some level of expenditure on water pollution control in the absence of the Act and another under the assumption there would have been no such expenditures in the absence of the Act (zero baseline scenario). Because the authors assumed zero baseline industrial expenditures, the estimates of the total costs of the Act are based on the zero baseline scenario.

The authors conclude that 'the equity impacts of the Act appear small, and it does not appear that the poor will pay a disproportionate share of the costs' (p. 244). For the average family the estimated welfare losses attributable to industrial price increases are estimated to be an order of magnitude greater than the annual costs of municipal compliance. The distribution of these welfare losses 'hits the middle income groups particularly hard' (p. 228), though the incidence of the total pollution control costs is found to be 'roughly comparable to the distribution of the Federal tax burden' (p. 229).

The estimates of the distributional consequences of the Act must be viewed in light of the authors' simplifying assumptions. In particular, the authors ignored most of the macroeconomic consequences of the Act and chose to estimate the distributional consequences of only the 'direct' costs of complying with the Act. 'Other burdens, such as losses in GNP due to unemployment, reduced economic growth, loss of corporate profit due to inability to pass costs on . . . are excluded from the analysis' (p. 2). Neither do they consider any stimulative effect that the Act may have on certain sectors of the economy (for example, the production of water pollution control equipment). Though the authors cannot be criticized for explicitly limiting the scope of their work, one might ask why they chose to estimate consumer welfare (or consumers' surplus) losses resulting from industrial price increases while ignoring profit (producer's surplus) losses due to inability to fully pass on these price increases.

A congenial critic would find much to quibble with, even insignificantly so, in this book. But, given the authors' limiting assumptions and a degree of empathy with those faced with addressing such a complex problem, the research approach and results seem reasonable.

My main criticism is directed at the editorial quality of the report. The text is poorly written, redundant, and suffers from a lack of careful editing. Chapter 3, which occupies 150 pages of the 244 page text, is poorly organized; I had to keep referring to the Table of Contents for goodposts because the relevance of some of the material in this chapter is not always immediately evident. Not all of the references are sufficiently documented, and no bibliography is provided. Lake, Hannemann, and Oester have an interesting story to tell; unfortunately, it is poorly told.

Finally, it should be noted that the equity (however measured) of the Act will depend not only upon the distribution of its costs, but also upon the distribution of its benefits. Lake, Hannemann, and Oester provide a valuable look at who pays the 'direct' costs of obtaining clean water. The other half of the story remains to be told.

John E. Scheller is with the U.S. Geological Survey, Reston, Virginia.

Visitor Appointments: NCAR

Appointments at the High Altitude Observatory are available for new and established Ph.D.'s for up to one year period to carry out research in solar physics, solar-terrestrial physics, and related subjects. Applicants should provide a curriculum vitae including education, work experience, publications, the names of three scientists familiar with their work, and a statement of their research plans. Applications must be received by 15 January 1982. Resumes to ads with box numbers should be addressed to: Box 100, American Geophysical Union, 2000 Florida Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20008.

Engineering Geologist/Geophysicist

The Department of Geological Sciences, University of Saskatchewan, has a vacant tenureable position in engineering geology/geophysics. Applicants should be qualified to teach undergraduate and graduate courses and to conduct research in engineering geology. A background in structural geology may be appropriate. Well-equipped facilities are available for research in rock mechanics, fluid flow through porous media, acoustic, and electrical properties of rocks, and permafrost. Good opportunities exist for joint research with qualifications and experience. Send applications, detailed personal resumes including the names of at least three referees, and other supporting data to Dr. W.B.E. Caldwell, Head, Department of Geological Sciences, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, S7N 0W0.

Please note: until November 15, 1981 consideration will be given only to applicants who are Canadian or landed immigrants, after that date all applications will be considered.

Stanford University. A postdoctoral or research associate appointment is available in the area of space plasma physics. Topics of study include data from electron beam experiments aboard the space shuttle and the behavior of low energy plasmas in the magnetosphere. Resumes and names of three referees should be sent to Professor P. M. Banks, Radio Science Laboratory, Department of Electrical Engineering, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305.

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University of Leeds/Isotope Geologist

Applications are invited for a post of Postdoctoral Research Fellow in the Department of Earth Sciences for a fixed term of up to two years. The research programme of the Isotope Geology Unit in the Department includes geochronology oriented particularly towards evolution of metamorphic belts, and applications of radiogenic isotope geochemistry to petrogenetic problems and the present state and past history of the earth's mantle. Equipment available includes two solid-source mass spectrometers (Micromass 30 and Loomis 54) for Rb-Sr, U-Pb, K-Ar and ³⁶Ar/³⁹Ar with supporting chemical facilities which are dedicated to these programs and to projects in oceanic isotope geochemistry. The successful applicant will be expected to initiate work in one or more of these fields and to collaborate in appropriate current projects. Salary within the range \$2070-41050 according to age, qualifications and experience. Informal enquiries may be made to Professor J. C. Briden. Further particulars and application forms (if desired) may be obtained from the Registrar, The University, Leeds LS2 9JT, UK, quoting reference number 49-204H3. Closing date for applications 30 November 1981.

University of Hawaii Faculty Positions

The Department of Geology and Geophysics and the Hawaii Institute of Geophysics of the University of Hawaii are seeking applicants for two tenure track positions becoming available January 1, 1982. Applicants should have specialization in (1) marine geophysics with emphasis in one or more of the fields: marine seismology, magnetism and gravity; or (2) marine geology/sedimentology. One of these positions will be filled at a rank of full professor, the other of assistant or associate level.

Applicants should have demonstrated ability to conduct and promote marine research commensurate with the level of the application. Ability to teach at all levels is expected. The positions will be joint ones on an 11-month basis with the Department and the Institute and will involve both teaching and research responsibilities. Apply with resume, expected level of appointment and the names of 3 referees to Chairman, Personnel Committee, Department of Geology and Geophysics, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822.

Closing date for applications is January 1, 1982. The University of Hawaii is an affirmative-action/equal opportunity employer.

University of California, Davis: Igneous Petrologist

The Department of Geology invites applications for a tenure-track position in the field of igneous petrology, as an Assistant Professor, effective for the academic year 1982-1983. Preference will be given to candidates whose research demonstrates a thorough understanding of field, theoretical and experimental approaches to the science and who show promise for high caliber research on fundamental problems. The successful candidate will be expected to continue actively in the existing teaching program in igneous petrology at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Departmental facilities include a thin-section laboratory and electron microprobe, both of which are supported by full-time personnel, an experimental laboratory with high pressure piston cylinder and low pressure adiabatic heated equipment, a scanning electron microscope, stable isotope laboratory, as well as the usual equipment (XRF, XRD, computers, etc.). The University of California at Davis is located conveniently to areas containing all types of igneous rocks.

The final date for receipt of applications is February 1, 1982. The University of California is an equal opportunity affirmative action employer.

Interested individuals should send their resume to: Jere H. Lope, Chair, Department of Geology, University of California, Davis, California 95616.

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University of Utah Faculty Positions. The Department of Geology and Geophysics invites applications for four tenure track positions at the assistant to associate professor level.

- Economic Geology.** The specific area of expertise is open, however, preference will be given to candidates whose research interests are in geological, geochemical, or petrological characteristics of metallic mineral deposits.
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- Seismology.** Applicants with backgrounds and specialties in seismic reflection, seismic imaging or theoretical seismology will be given preference.
- Potential fields.** Geophysicist with specialty in potential field including gravity and magnetics. The closing date for this position is January 31, 1982.

A Ph.D. or equivalent is required. The vacancies are to be filled by September 1982; the closing date for applications for positions 1-3 is December 31, 1981. Applicants should submit a vita, transcript, a letter describing their research teaching goals, and names of five persons for reference to: William P. Nash, Chairman, Department of Geology and Geophysics, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah 84112.

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Position in Reflection Seismology/Rice University, Houston, Texas. The Department of Geology and Geophysics is seeking a geophysicist. Your main teaching and research interests should be in the acquisition and processing of reflection seismic data. You should also help in developing rigorous undergraduate and graduate curricula, which are supported by the traditional strength of the Math Sciences, Physics, and Electrical Engineering Departments at Rice. Enthusiasm to work with and undertake some joint projects with our geologists is essential.

Our plans are to acquire a computer system configured for high quality data processing. Substantial seed money for this facility is already in hand. Creative cooperation with the oil and geophysical industry in Houston, including a reasonable amount of consulting, is encouraged. Salary will be commensurate with qualifications and experience. Please send your curriculum vitae, a summary of experience in seismic processing, a statement of research interests, and names of three or more references to: Dr. A. W. Eaton, Chairman, Department of Geology, Rice University, P.O. Box 1892, Houston, Texas 77001. Application deadline—December 1, 1981.

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City University of New York (Brooklyn College) Faculty Positions. The Department of Geology anticipates filling several tenure track positions at Full Professor level (Salary range up to \$43,400). Highly qualified individuals will be considered for distinguished appointments at an additional \$5,000.

While candidates who have distinguished themselves in any field are welcome to contact us, we are particularly interested in openings in: energy resources (coal petroleum), exploration geophysics, environmental geology or hydrogeology, coastal sedimentology, economic geology.

Successful applicants will be required to institute an active research program, supervise Master's and Ph.D. theses. Nominations and applications with current vitae should be sent to: Dr. S. Bhattacharya, Chairman, Dept. of Geology, Brooklyn College of City University of New York, Brooklyn, New York 11210. Positions open until filled.

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Postdoctoral Awards in Ocean Sciences and Engineering. Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution invites applications for 1-year postdoctoral fellowships from new and recent doctorates in fields of biology, chemistry, engineering, geology, geophysics, mathematics, meteorology, and physics, as well as oceanography. Recipients of awards are selected on a competitive basis, with primary emphasis placed on research promise.

Fellowship stipend is \$20,000. Appointees are eligible for group health insurance and a modest research budget. Recipients are encouraged to pursue their own research interests independently or in association with resident staff. Completed applications must be received by February 1, 1982 for 1982-83 awards. Awards will be announced in March. Write for application forms to: Jean O. Grady, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543.

Equal Opportunity/Affirmative Action Institution

Structural Geologist/University of Wyoming. The University of Wyoming, Department of Geology and Geophysics seeks applicants for a tenure track appointment in structural geology expected to be available beginning fall semester 1982 or earlier. Duties will include teaching of undergraduate and graduate courses in structural geology, supervising M.S. and Ph.D. theses, and research in structural geology. Appointment at assistant professor level is preferred, but applicants requesting appointment at higher rank will be considered. Salary open. Applicants must have Ph.D. degree and be versed in quantitative theory as well as field applications or modern structural geology and regional tectonics.

Applicants should provide, by January 1, 1982, a resume, three letters of reference, and a letter of application including a statement of current research interests and a statement of how the applicant feels qualified to teach. Applications should be sent to:

Dr. Robert S. Houston/Head
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Supervisory Physical Scientist. The Research Facilities Center (RFC) of NOAA in Miami, Florida, is seeking a senior level scientist to manage its Research Systems Group. The RFC operates, maintains, and operates aircraft, helicopters and ground-based equipment for atmospheric, oceanographic and environmental research. The incumbent will direct a group of scientists, engineers and technicians involved with collection, calibration, quality control, formatting, documenting and delivery of data to users of the RFC. This position is in the Competitive Service. The grade and entrance level salary of the position is GS-14, \$37,871 per annum. Future salary adjustments are subject to the Merit Pay system. QUALIFICATIONS: BS or higher degree in meteorology, physics, math, oceanography, or the physical sciences. In addition, 3 years of professional experience which has equipped the candidate with the knowledge necessary to perform the above duties. SELECTIVE FACTORS: Applicants must have experience in a research and development environment and be capable of directing research in instrumentation physics, calibration techniques, advanced computer techniques and spectral analysis. Additional technical information may be obtained from Dr. C. B. Emmenauel (305)526-2936 or FT5 960-2936. TO APPLY: Current or former federal employees should submit SF-171 and CO-332 (Employee Appraisal). Form CO-332 may be obtained by calling (305) 361-4454 or FT5 360-1454. Applicants not employed by the Federal Government should submit a complete application package for "Physical Science Positions-1300". These forms may be obtained from the nearest Office of Personnel Management (OPM) or by APPLICANTS MUST SUBMIT THEIR PUBLICATIONS RECORD. All applications should be submitted to NOAA/ERL Area Personnel Office, 4301 Rickenbacker Causeway, Miami, Florida 33149. Ref. No. NOAA/ERL 61-232. Applications must be received by November 13, 1981, to receive consideration. AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER. *Salary subject to increase due to October comparability adjustment.

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Fellowship stipend is \$20,000. Appointees are eligible for group health insurance and a modest research budget. Recipients are encouraged to pursue their own research interests independently or in association with resident staff. Completed applications must be received by February 1, 1982 for 1982-83 awards. Awards will be announced in March. Write for application forms to: Jean O. Grady, Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution, Woods Hole, Massachusetts 02543.

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The Caswell Silver Distinguished Professorship in Geology THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO

The Department of Geology of the University of New Mexico is pleased to invite nominations or applications for the Caswell Silver Distinguished Professorship in Geology. This endowed professorship shall be awarded for periods of up to two years to earth scientists of distinguished accomplishment and international reputation. The professorship may be held by scientists of all specialties of the earth sciences in the broadest sense, and the major criterion for selection is that the individual be an active, productive leader in his or her field of research. The recipient must carry out a vigorous research program while in residence at UNM. The recipient is expected to interact with the faculty and students of the Department and to provide one or more seminars. In an advanced topic of his/her choice, during each academic year. The Foundation will provide unusually advantageous remuneration commensurate with the distinguished nature of the appointment. In addition, a generous allocation for travel and operating expenses (to include an assistant support, analytical services in Department laboratories, use of field vehicles, and preparation of manuscript) will be provided.

Applications or nominations should include a detailed resume and brief statement of major research accomplishments. Applications or nominations should be forwarded to:

Rodney C. Ewing, Chairman
Department of Geology
University of New Mexico
Albuquerque, New Mexico 87131



The deadline for applications is January 1, 1982.
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Research Position in Chemical Oceanography. California Institute of Technology, Division of Geological and Planetary Sciences. The position of research fellow is being offered at Caltech for research in oceanography. Investigation of the isotopic composition of neodymium and rare earth abundance in sea water and sediments is now being carried forward. The mechanism of injection of REE into sea water will be studied. The differences in $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ in various water masses (Pillayra et al., Earth and Planetary Sci. Lett. 45, 223-236 and Plessner and Wasserburg, Earth and Planetary Sci. Lett. 50, 129-138 [1980]) is now being carried forward. The origin and chemical behavior of REE in the ocean and the potential use of $^{143}\text{Nd}/^{144}\text{Nd}$ as a tracer. The laboratory facilities for sample preparation and analysis are fully functional and will be available. Applicants should have training in oceanography and a good perspective on general physical oceanographic models.

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Meetings

Chapman Conference: Rock Discontinuities

"Discontinuities in Rock, Their Role and Significance in Geologic Processes," an AGU Chapman Conference, will be convened by Lawrence Teutell and Robert Flecker at Bishop's Lodge near Santa Fe, New Mexico, on May 3-6, 1982. Sessions will cover mechanics of formation and characterization, constitutive laws and deformational processes, geophysical phenomena, hydraulic properties, and mechanical and hydraulic modeling.

Those interested in attending should contact Teutell, Geomechanics Division 5532, Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, NM 87185, or Flecker, Los Alamos National Laboratory, Geosciences Division Office MS 570, Box 1663, Los Alamos, NM 87545. To ensure the maximum interchange of ideas, attendance will be limited; participants will be selected from those applying. Deadline for application is December 15.



Fall Meeting

Session Highlights San Francisco Dec. 7-11, 1981

Geomagnetism and Paleomagnetism

Magnetite Biomineralization by Living Organisms (Th, PM)

Join this special session on frontier research in biomagnetism, and explore the interaction of living organisms with the geomagnetic field. Topics include the search for ferromagnetic minerals in bacteria, butterflies, green sea turtles, and dolphins. The session will focus on how organisms synthesize magnetite and the possibility of a magnetic sense in animals. Recent developments concerning electromagnetic effects on cancer are also on the program.

Hydrology

Impact of Richards' Equation Banquet

The special session, Impact of Richards' Equation, is scheduled for Tuesday, December 8 at the Holiday Inn. There will be a luncheon banquet at noon. Don Nielsen will speak on Future Directions of Richards' Equations. Please send a check payable, in the amount of \$8.50, to T. N. Narasimhan, Earth Sciences Division, Lawrence Berkeley Lab, Berkeley, CA 94720. Reserve Now! For more information call 415-486-5655.

Planetology

Satellites of Jupiter and Saturn (W, AM)

Surfaces and interiors of outer-planet satellites, with emphasis on processes that modify surfaces. Several of the papers treat cratering, crater relaxation, and tectonics on icy bodies.

Outer Planets: Atmospheres, Ionospheres, and Rings (W, AM)

The first three papers consider transient phenomena (braids, kinks, spokes, etc.) in and dynamics of ring systems. The remainder of the session is devoted to atmospheric states and processes, including flow patterns, emission, lightning, and chemistry.

Early Solar System and Primitives (W, PM)

This session includes papers on preplanetary disk conditions, then moves to meteorites and comets.

Microwave Observations of the Planets (W, PM)

A session on active and passive methods of studying planetary surfaces and atmospheres. Both earth-based and spacecraft experiments will be represented. New results as well as brief reviews of each subdiscipline will be included.

Terrestrial Planets: Atmospheres and Ionospheres (Th, PM)

Primarily a session on Venus atmospheric phenomena from the planet's surface in its interaction with the solar wind. Several papers discuss ionospheric models based on Pioneer Venus observations.

Terrestrial Planets: Surfaces and Interiors (Th, PM)

This session includes papers on gravity and differentiation of Venus and the evolution and temperature of the moon. A later paper discusses an early lunar core-dynamo magnetic field. The session concludes with presentations on cratering studies and on morphology, dynamics, and control of sand dunes.

Solar-Planetary Relationships

The Section of Solar-Planetary Relationships will sponsor several noteworthy sessions at the fall meeting. Special all-day sessions on Monday (SS) and Friday (SM) will feature the

NASA Solar-Terrestrial Theory Program (STTP). The Monday papers are invited oral presentations by the STTP principal investigators. The Friday papers are contributed poster presentations by the STTP investigators and others in the field of space plasma theory. A special all-day session on Wednesday (SM) will feature invited and contributed talks on laboratory and space experiments designed to elucidate magnetospheric and ionospheric processes. A long session on Wednesday morning (SM) will highlight preliminary results from the Dynamics Explorer spacecraft launched this past August. Contributed sessions on aurora and substorms (M, AM/Th, AM) and on waves, instabilities, and turbulence in space plasmas (T, AM/Th, PM) will feature oral presentations early in the week and poster presentations on Thursday. The spectacular success of the poster sessions at Baltimore has earned us use of the El Dorado Room of the Jack Tar for this purpose at San Francisco. Attendees of the poster sessions on Thursday and Friday (SM) will find a gold mine of information there. Special sessions on the Magnetospheres of Jupiter and Saturn (SM) will be held Wednesday afternoon (contributed papers) and Thursday morning (invited papers) so as not to conflict with Planetary's special session on Voyager 2 results. The invited speakers on the magnetospheres of Jupiter and Saturn will each be given a full hour (plus discussion time) on Thursday morning to review their respective topics from an impartial perspective.

Volcanology, Geochemistry, and Petrology

Magma Energy (M, AM)

Molten bodies of rock within 10 km of the surface are a potential source of energy. In the U.S. this source may exceed the annual energy consumption by 3 to 4 orders of magnitude. DOE's Magma Energy Research Project has concluded that extraction of energy from this source is scientifically feasible. This session will summarize the findings of the project, including drilling technology, energy extraction methods, and problems associated with operations in this unique environment.

Hawaiian Volcanism (T, PM)

Hawaii is best known for its two most active volcanoes, Kilauea and Mauna Loa. The papers in this session focus on Kilauea Volcano, which erupts every few years. Included are the results of recent geochemical, geophysical, and geodetic monitoring of Kilauea as well as findings from recent drilling into the Kilauea Iki lava lake formed in 1959.

Chemical and Convective Stratification of the Mantle (W, AM)

It is the consensus of earth scientists that convection occurs in the mantle, but little is known about the vertical dimensions of the presumed mantle flow. The papers in this pair of sessions will present the geophysical and petrologic evidence for stratification and chemical variations in the mantle, explore the constraints on convection parameters placed by studies of subduction zones, and discuss theoretical aspects of mantle convection models.

Geology of Loihi Seamount (Th, PM)

Loihi Seamount, which lies 30 km southeast of the island of Hawaii, is probably the newest volcano in the Hawaiian-Emperor chain. The results of recent, closely coordinated geophysical, photographic, petrologic, chemical, and isotopic studies will be presented in this special session. The findings include data that may require significant modifications to the traditional petrogenetic model for Hawaiian volcanoes.

Explosive Volcanism: Inception, Evolution, and Hazards (Th, F)

The catastrophic, explosive eruption of a volcano is one of nature's most spectacular displays. In order to provide a catalyst for additional research into the origin, mechanisms, and consequences of such eruptions the Geophysics Study Committee of the National Research Council has convened a Panel on Explosive Volcanism. The results of the panel's studies will be contained in two special sessions of invited papers that will explore explosive volcanism and the relations between tectonic and volcanic processes. The invited papers will be followed by two sessions of contributed papers on explosive volcanism in the Cascade and other volcanoes in the western hemisphere.

Island Arcs and Ophiolites (F)

Two special sessions—Petrogenesis of Igneous Rocks in Intra-oceanic Island Arcs and Ophiolites and Petrogenesis in Island Arcs—will focus on the relations between subduction and volcanism in the island arc tectonic setting. Included are petrologic and chemical studies of representative ophiolite sections and geochemical investigations of volcanic rocks from island arcs near active subduction zones.

Ocean Sciences: AGU/ASLO Joint Meeting

February 18-19, 1982
San Antonio, Texas
Convention W. D. Nowlin, Jr., (AGU) and
R. W. Eppley (ASLO)

Abstract Deadline:
November 10, 1981
Call for papers published in EOS, June 23.

A Chapman Conference on Subsurface Water Contributions to Streamflow

A Chapman Conference on Subsurface Water Contributions to Streamflow was held October 5-9, 1980, at the New England Center for Continuing Education in Durham, N.H.

The purpose of the conference was to bring together an interdisciplinary group of scientists and engineers who are actively engaged in research on the processes by which water from atmospheric precipitation moves into and through the subsurface on the way to becoming streamflow. Subsurface here means everything from the uppermost leaf or litter layer just beneath land surface down to and including the underlying saturated zone. This approach also requires consideration of evapotranspiration and capillary forces, which remove water from within the flow system either permanently or temporarily.

The discussion and papers dealt with a series of major topics, each of which was introduced by an invited speaker. The boundaries between topics proved fluid to say the least. However, and in fact, over one half of the participants were most interested in what has come to be called hillslope hydrology. (That is, the emphasis was on processes at the "grass-roots" level.) For these reasons, the presentations are generally given in chronological order instead of attempting to categorize them exactly by topic.

The conference began with a discussion by D. D. Hoff (Oak Ridge) of the latest progress with PROSPER II, a model for atmospheric-soil-plant-water flow. J. L. Nieber (Texas A&M) pointed out the importance of capillary hysteresis in saturated-unsaturated flow by comparing the results of finite element simulation and laboratory modeling for flow in a sloping slide. A. L. O'Brien (Lowell) showed from groundwater level and stream hydrograph relationships that as much as 80% of flow from a wellhead could come from groundwater.

A most provocative presentation was given by D. Hillel (Massachusetts) on evapotranspiration with emphasis on the complexities of both soil evaporation and plant transpiration. Commonly held assumptions about uniformity of evapotranspiration over broad areas regardless of plant or soil type are suspect, and the widely used idea of potential evapotranspiration is hard to define in actual practice. F. I. Morton (Environment Canada) discussed his development of the complementary relationship between actual and potential evapotranspiration through use of routinely obtained climatological data. Ben Sill (Clemson) pointed out the bounds imposed by atmospheric stability on evaporation prediction by the bulk aerodynamic method. He presented a method for incorporating this into the current evaporation equation where it is commonly ignored.

H. J. Morel-Seytoux (Colorado State) demonstrated the value of analytical solutions in considering infiltration through the unsaturated zone. J. B. Urban and W. J. Gburek (SEA-AR) are attempting to model baseload in a New England watershed by considering the physical control exerted by saturated seepage in a fairly shallow soil and fracture zone overlying impermeable bedrock. They obtained recession curves they consider to be characteristic of the subwatersheds. Recent results of work with a variable source area simulator, VASA, were given by P. Y. Benier and L. J. Letkoff (Georgia). This model will also be linked to PROSPER II, which was discussed above.

D. D. Fritton (Pennsylvania State) highlighted the difficulties in quantitatively describing porous media flow properties in the unsaturated zone except for a homogeneous medium. He emphasized the unsaturated hydraulic conductivity function and some ways of measuring it. This was followed by L. K. Kulper (USGS) who considered the problem of head decline in a confined aquifer due to vertical water movement in an overlying saturated-unsaturated confining bed. D. K. Babu (Purdue) presented some analytical results describing the response of the capillary zone above a water table to recharge. Specifically, Babu's results indicate the water table can rise very quickly.

A definitive survey of the need for monitoring and related problems with instrumentation for hillslope processes was given by M. G. Anderson (Bristol). Good data are needed, and broad generalizations are to be avoided. If valid inferences are to be made, M. G. Sklar (Vanderbilt) gave the results for environmental isotope studies that show a major portion of annual runoff in a stream in a humid region is likely to come mainly from groundwater close to the stream. A groundwater ridge theory has been developed to explain the phenomenon. K. Beven (Virginia) introduced his preliminary results in using the kinematic waves approximation for predicting subsurface stormflow hydrographs. The complex problem of what goes on at the interface between the unsaturated and the saturated zones was discussed by T. N. Narasimhan (Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory). He pointed out that the two zones should be considered in a uniform fashion instead of being arbitrarily separated.

T. D. Steale (Woodward-Clyde) reviewed current work on chemical aspects of groundwater-surface water interactions mainly by use of case studies. L. R. Ahuja (SEA-AR) presented the results of studies on interflow in sloping soils and low chemicals may be transported through this region. D. F. Ryan (Dartmouth) gave the preliminary findings of modeling chemical movement in stream flow for a New England watershed. He observed that ample dilution medium may describe average chemistry reasonably well but that they do not describe the process in a realistic way. H. J. Simpson (Lamont-Doherty Geological Observatory) showed the value of redox 222 measurement for tracing groundwater input to streamflow.

The invited speaker for water management was unable to attend; however, H. J. Morel-Seytoux (Colorado State) gave a willing and able volunteer. He emphasized the value of analytical response functions for stream-aquifer systems instead of numerical models because of simplicity and decreased computer time. D. N. Folkman and D. T. Pederson (Nebraska) discussed the problems of describing stream-aquifer interactions when flowing wells and pumping irrigation wells are present.

J. A. Lynch (Pennsylvania State) and E. S. Corbett (U.S. Forest Service) gave presentations on the role of antecedent soil moisture and the stormflow generation process as observed in an instrumented experimental watershed where artificial rainfall was applied in various patterns and at various rates.

J. DeVries (British Columbia) and M. G. Uting (Hart, Cowser and Associates) discussed the stormflow generation processes on a steep coastal watershed. The apparent non-Darcian nature of subsurface stormflow was of particular interest with logs, root holes, and the like serving as flow conduits. Computer simulations of hillslope runoff was covered by R. A. Freeze (British Columbia). He also demonstrated that realistic patterns could be obtained by treating hydraulic properties as stochastic variables.

During the conference, poster sessions were given with F. I. Morton (Environment Canada) further illustrating his use of the complementary relationship between actual and potential evapotranspiration. K. Beven and coworkers at Virginia presented their ideas and preliminary results for a study of the impact of cold precipitation on catchments in Shenandoah National Park. L. R. Ahuja and J. W. Naney (SEA-AR) demonstrated a method of soil water characterization of two watersheds under different management schemes. R. K. Wright (McGill) gave the results of a detailed study of the water balance in a small subarctic watershed. Also, during the conference M. G. Sklar (Waterloo) gave an impromptu talk on the use of environmental isotopes for investigating storm runoff, and D. R. Lee (Atomic Energy of Canada) discussed some of his work with groundwater-lake interactions.

The conference finished with a panel discussion on research needs by T. A. Prickett (Camp, Dresser and McKee), M. E. Mose (U.S. Geological Survey), and D. Hillel (Massachusetts) with one interesting theme being the need to use analytical solutions where possible and to avoid elaborate numerical solutions where they are not warranted. J. F. Daniel (U.S. Geological Survey) then gave an overview of the Conference as a whole. He pointed out that there was an interesting geographic bias between those on the west coast of the United States and Canada, east coast of the United States, and England who preferred nonlinear approaches and those in the central United States and Canada who preferred linear approaches, which seemed to carry over into their view of the importance of the capillary

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Aeronomy

6100 Composition and structure of the ionosphere. The ionosphere is the upper part of the atmosphere where the density of ions is high enough to affect the propagation of radio waves. This session will focus on the physical processes that control the ionosphere's structure and composition. Topics include: ionospheric chemistry, ionospheric dynamics, and ionospheric measurements. Speakers will discuss the latest research in this field and the challenges ahead.

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